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ABSTRACT

The national policies and implementation mechanisms for girls' primary and women's basic education in the following Asian countries were examined: Lao People's Democratic Republic; Nepal, Thailand; Indonesia; and India. The analysis focused on the following issues: (1) goals and progress; (2) national policies; (3) strategies (strengthening nonformal education; targeting ethnic minority and rural women; launching innovative programs; cultivating gender sensitivity; making education compulsory; introducing preschooling; recruiting and training women teachers; relating to girls); and (4) outstanding issues (valuing girls' education; managing the entry of private schooling; party politics compromising education; the slow pace of decentralization; inadequate funding). The following were among the 14 national and international recommendations that emerged from the study: (1) strengthen girls' and women's education as a tool of empowerment and poverty alleviation; (2) nurture horizontal communication between ministries to foster a cohesive, gender-responsive approach by government to education; (3) adopt participatory methods; (4) develop mechanisms to harness the successful learning from micro projects; (5) promote public dialogue on the value of girls' education; (6) initiate systematic monitoring and evaluation of girls' and women's learning outcomes; (7) provide needed training and support to women in gender-test roles; and (8) develop and apply a gender lens for international funding and interventions. (Contains 48 footnotes.) (MN)

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Girls' and Women's Education: Policies and Implementation Mechanisms

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GIRLS' AND WOMEN'S EDUCATION
Policies and Implementation Mechanisms

This comparative profile focuses on national policies and implementation mechanisms for girls' primary and women's basic education drawn from case studies in five Asian countries[1]. Lao PDR, Nepal, Thailand, Indonesia and India expose significant common ground for horizontal learning and joint problem-solving as well as a stimulating number of unique challenges.

This focus is timely. Year 2000 is assessment year for ***Education for All***. Globalisation, structural adjustment and the Asian financial crisis have brought waves of risk to the advancement of girls' schooling. Linked is concern that funding of non-formal education, where significant emphasis targets girls and women, may be especially vulnerable to cuts. The weak baseline of gender disaggregated data, limited number of gender-specific goals, and absence of evaluation for gender impact increase the risk.

Educating girls is a significant and distinct challenge from educating boys. Girls face gender-specific barriers to access and achievement. They are socio-cultural, economic, political and structural. They often vary by culture, community or family. Among the major barriers: male preference, early marriage, negative attitudes towards girls' schooling, cultural taboos, resistance to co-ed classes, school distances that exceed the local security/morality code, teacher absenteeism that puts girls' security at risk, lack of female teachers, irrelevant content, and lack of toilets.

Girls' horizons, many of their interests and needs, are distinct from those of boys. In many cultures, girls do longer hours of daily sibling care, housework and fieldwork than boys do[2]. Every moment that is devoted to class or homework is precious when time and energy are severely restricted by long work hours and, frequently, gender-related malnutrition. In many cultures, unlocking girls' learning potential requires penetrating their ascribed passivity to spark the self-confidence to analyse, solve problems and express opinions.

The Jomtien Conference (1990) and the Fourth World Conference on Women (1995) triggered unprecedented dialogue on gender issues within these national education ministries and with non-government stakeholders in education. The global profile helped create space for girls and women in development agendas and in the media. National ownership of gender education issues is increasingly displacing foreign-forced gender agendas. More gender-equity targets are being integrated into externally and locally funded education programmes. Dynamic dialogue has also become the catalyst for significant policy change: ***Education for All*** master plans in Thailand and Lao PDR, and Nepal's Plan of Action for women's empowerment which give priority to girls' and women's education.

The literacy gap is extreme in three of the countries studied. In Nepal and Lao PDR, the literacy of men is about twice that of women[3]. In India, there are more than three literate men for every two literate women[4].

Enrolling more girls is pivotal in closing gender gaps. An estimated 60 million[5] Indian children aged 6-14 are not in school. It can reasonably be argued that 70% of these are girls. The gender disparity is clear in all age groups. The deprivation is doubly deep for rural girls. Only 30.2%[6] of rural girls, age 5-9 years, participate in any education programme. Regional disparities within India are also sharp. Girls' enrolment decreases with diminished household income and social status.

Although millions are yet to be enrolled in India's schools, there has been progress in reducing Primary (1-5) dropout rates. In the three-year period ending 1995/96, dropout rates for boys and girls were both reduced by about eight per cent[7].

In Lao PDR 47.1% of girls compared to 27.7% of boys have never been to school[8]. In urban centres, a higher percentage of children go to school but the gender gap worsens. In rural areas, the gap remains wide with less than half of girls attending school[9]. Regional and ethnic[10] disparities are acute. Lowland Lao comprise 50-55% of the population, yet their

children are 73% of primary enrolees. Hmong, Yao and Akha, for example, account for approximately 18% of the population but only 5% of primary enrolment. More than 50% of ethnic minority girls never attend school. Most of those who do, only complete two grades and never achieve literacy. More than 4,000 remote villages have no schools.

Transition rates are poor. Girls in Lao PDR make up 43% of primary enrolment but only 37% of secondary and 17% of university enrolments[11].

In Nepal[12], nearly one million primary school age children are not in the schools. Two-thirds are girls. This is approximately 40% of all primary school-aged girls. The percentage of girls drops with increasing grades. Dropout and repetition rates are alarming for both boys and girls. Nearly one in four girls drops out of Grade 1 and nearly 40% repeat their first year. Only 37% of girls and 38% of boys are expected to complete the five primary grades. Multiple repetition is common with only 10% of children completing the five primary grades without repeating a year.

Indonesian and Thai statistics reflect significantly more progress in closing the gender gap in primary schooling. Indonesia has reduced the gender disparity in literacy from 12.5% to 5.4% between 1980 and 1990. By 1996, the female literacy rate had reached 89%, 3.8% less than the male literacy rate[13]. In the schools, the national enrolment statistics are encouraging. Gross primary school enrolment was 110.3% and net enrolment 93.5% in primary schools in 1994, including Madrasah Ibtida'iyah schools. Primary school completion was 80% and the annual drop-out rate had been reduced to 1.1%[14]. However, even in Yogyakarta Special Territory, one of Indonesia's most education-advantaged areas, gender disparity is still disturbingly real. Three times more girls, than boys, never go to school[15]. Gender disaggregated data are not available, but educators estimate that the vast majority of the one million students who do not go on to lower secondary school are girls.

Thailand has achieved almost 100% enrolment[16] in primary and lower secondary schooling, with statistics implying no significant gender difference. Factors contributing to this achievement are: Thailand's long history of compulsory education; long-standing royal patronage of girls' schooling; and the resulting high public visibility of educated women in traditionally male-dominated professions. Access is no longer a gender issue except in the four southern provinces where conservative Moslem religious restrictions lower girls' enrolment. Today's needs are to increase education's relevance for girls and to change attitudes in the private and public sectors so girls and women can put their education to maximum use. Today, the career ladder of women is often shorter than that of men.

Goals and Progress

Lao PDR:

- Inspired by the Jomtien Conference, the new constitution (1991) made the five years of primary education compulsory. However, by 1994 only one in four children between six and ten years old was attending school[17]. This prompted the government to adjust targets for year 2000 to: provide primary education to 80% of children; increase the primary school completion rate to 60% (up from 50% in 1992); and cut repeater rates of 11% by half.
- Targets included in the Basic Education (Girls') Project 1999-2005: build 300 schools, recruit minority women teachers, improve teacher training and supervision, develop new and effective teaching methods for girls.
- By year 2000, Lao PDR intends that 80% of adults, age 15-40, be literate. This is measured against a 1992 baseline of 30%. The goal for 2001-2005 is 85%.
- The revitalised Non-Formal Education Department in 1993 plans to provide opportunities for 50% of neo literates to continue in complementary education.

Thailand:

- No gender disaggregated goals.
- Policy makers view gender-specific goals unnecessary after statistically closing the gender gap. Nearly 100% of primary and lower secondary enrolment has been achieved with minimal gender variation. The adult literacy gap is minor. In 1995, male literacy reached 96.0% and female literacy 91.6%[18].

- Thailand extended compulsory education from six to nine years in the decade following 1987. Thailand now aims to expand basic education from nine to 12 years and to increase community involvement in education in its Eighth National Plan (1997-2001). Delivery will be based on the philosophy of life-long learning with individual choice of formal, non-formal or informal education.
- Pre-primary enrolment increased from 44.1% in 1990 to 81.8% in 1997.
- The number of students transitioning from primary to lower secondary increased from 1.2 million to 2.5 million between 1987-1997.

Nepal:

- 1998-2002 primary education goals specifically directed toward gender equity include: increasing the NER of primary-age girls from 58% to 85%; ensuring one female teacher per school; partnering with communities to open 10,000 early childhood education centres; ensuring a primary school is in walking distance of each village.
- 4,250 female primary teachers were recruited and trained in 1992-97. This achievement still leaves 40%[19] of primary schools without female teachers. MoE plans to increase the proportion of female teachers from 21% to 30% by 2003.
- 70% of the 1.4 million people who attained literacy in 1992-1997 NFE training programmes were women. In isolation, this is clearly good news. Put in proper perspective, it is far from good enough: women are increasingly being left behind in the drive for literacy. The gender differential in Nepal adult literacy rose from 24% to 27% between 1985 and 1995[20]. This is doubly disappointing when women have been the primary targets of literacy initiatives throughout the decade.
- 1998-2002 literacy goals aim to increase women's literacy from 30% to 60% (men's from 66% to 80%). This would raise the national literacy rate of 14-45 year olds from today's 48% to 70%. Nepal hopes to reduce the literacy dropout rate to below 25%, down from the 29.6% average of the last five years.

India:

- Almost 50%[21] of girls and women do not have the opportunity to gain an education. The most unfortunate are those from the scheduled classes, scheduled tribes, minorities, and low-income rural areas.
- India's education system does not have the capacity to absorb the girls who want to go to school. An intensive girls' enrolment campaign by the Women's Development Programme in the early 1990s attracted so many girls that Rajasthan teachers turned many away. The rejected girls were primarily from 'backward and poor' communities. Lack of access remains a serious issue. In 1997, the UN estimated a shortage of 1.5 million teachers if every child attended school at a teacher-pupil ratio of 1:40[22]. The Government of India estimated a 925,000 shortfall.

Indonesia:

- No gender disaggregated goals in formal education.
- Indonesia committed to six years of compulsory primary education in 1984. By 1994, primary school participation had reached 93.5% (7-12 years)[23]. In 1995, the government expanded compulsory education to include three additional years of lower secondary education. By the end of Repilita VII (2004), the government seeks to enrol all teenage girls and boys, aged 13 to 15 years, in lower secondary education.
- Indonesia's five-year development plan (1994-1999) calls for training of women in 17 educationally disadvantaged provinces[24]. Targets include: management training (1,280 women); vocational training (14,260 women); training linked to income generation (803 women); leadership skills (1,280 women); business skills (13,930 women); and income-generation skills (803 groups).

National Policy

Education policy setting remains primarily a government-centric and male-dominated process. Collaboration is not maximised between line ministries, within education ministries, or between government and non-government stakeholders in education. Barriers and jealousies often exist between formal and non-formal education.

The good news: tradition has been put aside allowing education ministries to participate in multi-partner consultation that advanced education policy for girls and women. The extent and inclusiveness of public consultation that shaped India's National Policy on Education[25] remain unprecedented in the country Multi-stakeholder planning processes guided the creation of Nepal's Plan of Action for empowerment of women and Lao PDR's Basic Education (Girls') Project. Participants involved NGOs, INGOs, UN donors, line ministries and women's groups. The challenge is to ensure these inclusive processes do not become 'one-off' experiments. Also important is for participating stakeholders to have the opportunity to monitor and comment on the resulting policies and programmes.

India The National Policy on Education, which guides education development, is considered a breakthrough in addressing gender issues. The national policy chapter entitled Education for Women's Equality states: *"The National Education System will play a positive, interventionist role in the empowerment of women. It will foster the development of new values through redesigned curricula, textbooks, the training and orientation of teachers, decision-makers and administrators, and the active involvement of educational institutions. ...The removal of women's illiteracy and obstacles inhibiting their access to, and retention in, elementary education will receive overriding priority."*

Unfortunately, there are few signals of serious effort to implement this vision or to replicate the holistic planning process. Policies that are critical to increasing girls' access, including flexible school times and adapted curricula, remain at the micro level and are not being integrated. Although policy makers have made commitments to gender mainstreaming, their subordinates show faint commitment.

Thailand The National Scheme of Education (1992) envisions education that is driven by local needs and creates holistic, self-reliant individuals who are responsible custodians of their environment and sustainable communities. Its ***Education for All*** master plan (1994), which guides girls and women's education, focuses on cultivating a youth vision and ethics, improving the teacher-learning process and decentralisation. Within this framework, the Office of the National Education Commission (ONEC) submits a five-year National Education Development Plan to the Council of Ministers.

The three-party splintering of primary education delivery disrupts cohesive policy-making in Thailand. The Office of the National Primary Education Commission (ONPEC) serves the rural majority while the Ministry of Interior serves municipal areas, excluding metropolitan Bangkok which is the responsibility of the Education Bureau of Bangkok.

Although Jomtien is credited with giving legitimacy to overhauling Thai education in response to globalisation pressures, it did not provoke dialogue on how gender studies or a gender lens could be integrated into education reform. Girl and women-specific programming has been relegated to non-formal education.

Incremental progress has been made in decentralising planning. District-level needs are included in provincial plans, developed within ONPEC's national guidelines.

Lao PDR The Beijing women's conference in 1995 prompted a rare, high-profile call for promoting education of females and the underprivileged in Lao PDR's Political Report of the VI Party Congress. However, this has yet to result in specific policy or gender-disaggregated targets for girls' schooling. Earlier, the Prime Ministerial decree of 1993, which committed the government to providing basic education for all adults (age 15-45), was heralded as important for women. Enthusiasm dampened when the vocational training, complementary education and information education initiatives flowing from it were not addressed from a gender perspective.

Although the social impact has yet to be documented, concerns mount over the government's national development plan, which targets relocating 800,000 highland people to the lowlands. This aims to facilitate reforestation and to bring mountain

minorities closer to education and health care. Regrettably, there has been severe social and cultural disruption in some settlement communities where hunger, health and education needs are not being met[26]. This, and the policy requiring all formal and non-formal instruction in the Lao language, are emerging as inhibitors to providing needs-based education to ethnic minorities.

Although education policy is centrally controlled, provincial and district officers have some opportunity to attend policy formation meetings – a valuable orientation to the policy process.

Nepal The National Planning Commission (NPC), independent and positioned above line ministries, is responsible for developing the national five-year plans approved by parliament. MoE is responsible for developing the education element and its component annual workplans, guided by the Basic & Primary Education Master Plan 1991-2000.

Specific policy commitments for increasing girls' and women's participation in education have been identified in five-year plans for more than 20 years. Yet there is sparse impact of Nepal having some of the earliest and most enlightened gender education policy in Asia. The problems start with the policy-making process.

The MoE has a tightly centralised policy and planning process that excludes the front-line experience of district education officers and their supervisors. Also excluded are non-government organisations which are the primary delivery agents of non-formal education, the private sector which provides primary education to 8% of Nepal's primary students, and most important, the communities. Most school management and village education committees are dysfunctional[27].

Nepal has structures that are yet to achieve their potential in gaining the essential collaboration to develop and implement holistic education policy for girls and women. Strategic partnering between the MoE and the Ministry of Women & Social Welfare is relatively undeveloped. Also embryonic are working relationships between the two councils allied to these ministries that foster civil society development and NGO delivery of education and gender equity programmes.

In addition, these councils (Social Welfare Council and National Non-Formal Education Council) have been slow to gain credibility with education stakeholders. NNFEC overstepped its original mandate to help salvage MoE literacy programme delivery: this left it without the resources, credibility and capacity to do the coordination, awareness-raising and monitoring it was mandated to do[28].

The Central Coordination Committee, chaired by Nepal's Minister of Women & Social Welfare, is composed of all ministry secretaries. It has the policy potential to maximise cross-government efficiencies and opportunities for integrated formal and non-formal education in the schools, literacy and NFE classes and other extension venues. Yet, "indifference and resistance" in line ministries is building[29]. Also largely untapped is the policy potential of the National Planning Commission to be a similar catalyst for injecting gender equity and efficiency into government initiatives.

Indonesia Indonesia was earlier than most Asian nations in creating a high-level political position to promote the advancement of women. In 1978, a junior minister was appointed to be responsible for the Role of Women. In 1983, the position was elevated to that of a state minister. Two of the five priorities of the women's ministry are to increase the level of women's education and skills and to develop a socio-cultural climate more conducive to the advancement of women.

The women's ministry is responsible for developing policy and strategy for girls' and women's education while the lead ministry for planning and implementation is the Ministry of Education & Culture (MoEC). The National Planning Bureau (BAPPENAS) facilitates development of the national government's five-year plans, using ministry input, and allocates budgets to ministries. The ministries of Home Affairs and Religious Affairs also have education delivery roles. Policy-making is hierarchical and centralised. Provincial and district MoEC offices operationalize plans but do not participate in making them. Community input is marginal to non-existent.

Although the women's ministry is to coordinate all ministries and organisations involved in women's affairs, it has yet to become a significant catalyst for interministry cooperation. Untapped potential exists to facilitate cohesive, gender-responsive education planning and gender-disaggregated data collection.

The ministry and its gender sensitisation efforts are credited with influencing a policy shift. The current 1994-1999 workplan for the women's ministry calls for eradicating female illiteracy, more leadership training of women, and gender training of planners and programmers. Although it also calls for improving the quality of women as human resources in development, suggesting women are viewed as passive, production inputs, the workplan breaks new ground. It is a distinct move away from Indonesian stereotyping of women as responsible for, and confined to, the domestic domain.

Strategies

Strengthening Non-Formal Education

Women and girls are the primary target of non-formal education programmes in the five countries studied. The ability of non-formal education to be innovative, empowering, flexible and responsive to girls' and women's needs is well documented in micro projects in each country. Experience in these countries shows clearly that where non-formal education has status, good management and resources, millions may benefit. Where non-formal education is undervalued, it flounders. Also evident, in some countries, is the conditionality of the professed priority given to non-formal education.

In Nepal, non-formal education is proving more effective than formal education in promoting adult literacy[30]. By contrast, in India non-formal education is only touching its potential. Less than 0.5% of rural girls aged 10-19 participate in non-formal or adult education. Rural participation rates in non-formal and adult education are very low, and even lower for women than men. Sample surveys indicate that not more than two to four women per thousand participate[31].

Public funding of non-formal education in India was widely considered morally indefensible[32] for decades and only gained official sanction in 1986 to reach backward regions. Non-formal education is still characterised by restrictive government control and low status. Girls' and women's literacy programming suffers as a direct result.

Among India's non-formal education approaches are: residential condensed education programmes[33] designed to create a cadre of confident women teachers; Operation Blackboard, launched in 1987, which encouraged appointing a second teacher in single-teacher schools; national grants-in-aid to state governments to set up NFE centres for out-of-school children, with 100% central funds promised for NFE centres for girls; and a similar scheme for innovations in elementary education. These created space for valuable local-specific experimentation to meet girls' needs. Some Indian NGOs also offer experience as co-ops responding to the life-long learning needs of their women members.

The main office in Thailand with specific programmes for women is the Office of Non-Formal Education (ONFE). It was the catalyst for non-formal student enrolments increasing from 2.0 million to 4.2 million in four years (1992-1996). ONFE's experience in empowering women through literacy suggests that life-long learning opportunities may be key to literacy retention and in supporting women as they engage in local education committees and other public fora. However, ONFE's 1996 proposal to open a Centre for Women's Life-long Learning was rejected by the cabinet. This slowed momentum, although activity on this front is being renewed after a recent injection of funds.

Within ONFE, women and girls are categorised as a disadvantaged target group. This imposes restrictions. So does the tendency of ministries to avoid gender issues by relegating them to the National Commission of Women's Affairs. Both trends could also lead to the government marginalizing gender issues. In addition, the education system resists increasing the low pay of literacy teachers and has eliminated ONFE's monitoring programme. Both are warning flags. They signal that the priority of women and of non-formal education is not as deep as espoused.

Monitoring and evaluation are also major needs in Nepal. Nepal's Cheli-beti Programme[34] was widely believed to have triggered girls' self-discovery of how to improve their village life. It has inspired, and been modified into, Nepal's out-of-school literacy program. Unfortunately, no impact evaluation has been done on the original project since its completion eight years ago. Hence, the programmes modelled on it operate without either qualitative or quantitative data on their sustainability. Cheli-beti is symptomatic of the lack of regular, meaningful monitoring of girls' and women's education in Nepal.

Nepal's National Non-Formal Education Council (NNFEC) has partnered extensively with the non-government sector in literacy development and delivery. Most recently, the Council and World Education co-developed, field-tested and printed Nepal's first post-literacy package. The NNFEC is also working with UNICEF on developing an earn-and-learn nine-month literacy course aimed at giving street children Grade 5 equivalency.

A Girls & Ethnic Minority Unit is being proposed to supervise Lao PDR's Basic Education (Girls) Project. At project completion, plans call for it to become a permanent unit in MoE's non-formal education department. This suggestion, which would bring energy, leadership and priority to girls' non-formal education, is being enthusiastically welcomed. As in Thailand, gender-sensitive communications within MoE and with other education stakeholders will be needed to ensure that "pigeon-holing" the needs of girls and women does not impede mainstreaming.

Substantive work has been done since 1994 by the Laotian Department of Non-Formal Education (DoNFE) project funded by UNESCO and NORAD in credit and skill-linked women's literacy. Ecole Sans Frontiers is implementing the project which is developing curricula, materials and training models in preparation for large-scale expansion and adaptation for groups of ethnic minority and disadvantaged women. Central to the project are community learning centres (CLCs). Lao PDR's six-year experience with CLCs, a partnership of the DoNFE and several INGOs, is currently being evaluated to inform government policy and planning in this area.

Indonesia's Directorate of Community Education (DIKMAS), responsible for non-formal education, has a sub-directorate in charge of women's and girls' out-of-school education. Indonesia has a wide menu of out-of-school programming: literacy classes; primary and lower secondary equivalency programmes; continuing education and post-literacy training integrating skills training, income-generation and apprenticeships; and community preschooling. Priority is given to women's literacy and skill training linked to family planning, maternal and child health, and micro business.

Non-formal education in Indonesia operates in a unique environment, with periodic involvement of the military and significant involvement by the government-directed Family Welfare Movement (PKK) to ensure participation. The PKK, referred to as the leading national women's NGO by the current government, is a mandatory membership organisation for wives of public servants. The Minister of Home Affairs' wife is the nation-wide chair. The wife of each village chief is the village chair. Policy and direction flows from the top.

The PKK, instrumental in government-funded out-of-school education for girls and women, has been internationally acclaimed for its role in decreasing Indonesia's birth rate to 1.2%. However, its strong political presence, and the government's preference that multilateral and bilateral education donors partner with the PKK, is also viewed as a considerable obstacle to an emerging NGO network and the strengthening of a grassroots women's movement. The PKK is embedded into the Ministry of Home Affairs, giving it substantive political support and government funding. Its functions often overlap and restrict the impact of the Indonesian Women's Congress (KOWANI), the national coordinator of grassroots women's NGOs.

The Indonesian government's commitment to non-formal education for poor women will be clear in whatever efforts it takes to sustain, or build on, the seven-year World Bank project that ends in 1999.

Targeting Ethnic Minority and Rural Women

Ethnic minority and disadvantaged rural girls and women are emerging as having the highest illiteracy rate in countries under study. The most comprehensive programme being developed to address ethnic minority needs is the Basic Education (Girls) Project in Lao PDR (1999-2005). Ethnic minorities make up nearly half of the national population. Minority girls and women have the lowest literacy and school enrolment levels. Most live in mountainous areas, accessible only by walking path in the dry season.

If the programme proceeds as envisioned, it will build 300 schools, pilot new girl-responsive teaching methods and train more female teachers from minority communities. It will have complementary formal and non-formal components.

There are signals that the government of Lao PDR has recognised that exclusive use of Lao as the language of instruction has been counter-productive to enrolment, achievement and literacy retention

in ethnic minority groups. The MoE is considering an innovative change: permitting teaching assistants who speak the local language to co-teach in rural ethnic areas.

In Thailand, Bangkok-based Buddhist-oriented education has been identified as contributing to the low enrolment and literacy of Muslim girls and women in the four southern provinces.

The extreme disparity in urban-rural literacy has focused both India's and Nepal's literacy programmes on rural women. Indonesia's primary literacy targets are the swelling number of illiterate urban poor and disadvantaged rural women.

Launching Innovative Programmes for Girls and Women

Power-sharing in education has always been and will remain contentious. India's Shiksha Karmi project is a compromise attempt to bridge the contention and government sensitivity to creating autonomous, parallel structures for education delivery.

The Swedish-funded Rajasthan Shiksha Karmi project, set up in 1986/87, launched the government-sponsored NGO model that has subsequently been widely used for the Total Literacy Campaign and special project delivery. Shiksha Karmi is registered as a traditional NGO but with one significant difference: the Education Secretary of the state is the ex-officio NGO head. The structure aims to couple the NGO strengths of flexibility and openness with the outreach, legitimacy and authority of government. This was seen as a necessary mechanism to mobilise out-of-school children in remote areas through para teachers. It was argued that the rigid school system would not relax its rules to permit either the recruitment of para teachers or the intensive support and training they would need.

An assessment of 10 such hybrid NGOs showed they were successful in empowering poor rural women through education. However, interaction with mainline education departments has been minimal. The experience of these programs has not been integrated into mainstream education. Relationships have sometimes become adversarial and programmes ghettoised.

India is also pioneering a more multi-sectoral approach to girls' and women's education than in the past. The District Primary Education Programme was designed to counteract social injury caused by India's structural adjustment programme. A portion of the SAP loan is being invested in primary health, subsidised food grain, retraining and basic education. Multi-dimensional inputs into the same geographic areas are used to collectively generate the conditions for more girls and women to get an education. Bridging the gender gap is subsumed in the equity agenda, alongside social and economic distress. The first three years show significant increases in girls' enrolment in some DPEP districts compared to non-DPEP districts.

Thai and Indonesian schools operate on a gender-neutral basis. The few programmes which target girls and women are primarily NFE. *(See non-formal education section above)*

Thailand's big advance into innovation is in life-long learning. In tandem with expanding all Thai citizens' rights to 12 years of basic education, Thailand is diversifying its education offerings. The government aims to offer schooling, curriculum-equivalent continuing education, community-driven non-formal education and for-credit informal learning. This wide choice should boost access for girls and women.

Linked to life-long learning is Thailand's creation of a vocational, as well as a general, stream in secondary education. This initiative may provide insight to Asian countries on life-long learning, prevocational or vocational training approaches.

Lao PDR offers a model of national systematic partnership between government and the women's network. Central to many girls' and women's initiatives is participation by the Lao Women's Union which has organisational links to women from the national to village level. Mainstream examples are the ADB-funded Basic Education (Girls') Project and the UNDP/NORAD-funded Gender Resource & Information Development Project. The Lao Women's Union is central to the project's capacity building of skills to collect and analyse data for development planning of gender-aware education.

Indonesia, China and Pakistan are cooperating with UNESCO to empower women farmers, one of the most disadvantaged groups in the three partner countries. The aim is to identify and implement a practical multi-channel learning programme. A recent[35] evaluation reafirms the need for this

initiative. It shows that women farmers in some parts of Indonesia are denied access to extension services and farmer training.

Indonesia is also establishing resource centres for women entrepreneurs under the Directorate of Community Education. The intent is to develop a model for poor literate women who do not have an income to gain micro business, marketing and entrepreneurial skills. A Literacy Resource Centre for Girls and Women is being established this year in Bandung by Asia/Pacific Cultural Centre for UNESCO (ACCU) and Studio Driyal Media, an education and training NGO. The centre's aim is to strengthen education NGOs and be a national contact point on literacy and continuing education for girls and women.

Another area of focus in Indonesia is the emphasis on vocational skills within out-of-school programmes. In addition to the programmes implemented by government and in partnership with the PKK and KOWANI, there is a rich source of vocational training expertise in localised NGOs that do not have national or political affiliations. Political censoring has caused these organisations to shun mainstream media exposure and to keep a low profile. As a result, much of their learning has yet to be documented and shared.

Nepal has introduced an array of girl-specific incentives. The government's biggest primary initiative, the Basic and Primary Education Project, plans a comprehensive evaluation and retooling of girl-specific incentives in Phase II (1999-2003). This much-needed move would be more enthusiastically received if the all-male team of five external BPEP advisors included gender expertise and had gender balance.

Nepal's linchpin incentives are scholarships for about 5% of primary girls in 65 districts and for all primary girls in the remaining 10 most educationally disadvantaged districts. All girls get free texts in all primary grades. (All boys get free texts in Grade 1-3. Boys in disadvantaged areas get free texts in Grade 4-5.) Incentives for disadvantaged girls have included scholarships, uniforms, mid-day meals, subsidised hostel accommodation to encourage secondary school attendance and teacher training. Although evaluations have not been comprehensive or systematic, there is ample evidence that ambivalence by front-line MoE staff in promoting, implementing and monitoring has sharply reduced their collective potential. While many of these incentives have been successful in other countries, their impact in Nepal has been minimal[36].

Indonesian experience verifies the need for gender-aware management of incentives: male preference has resulted in boys having significantly more access, than girls, to scholarships for Yogyakarta's poorest children.

On the horizon are three BPEP Phase II initiatives which will have special impact on girls. the staged introduction of compulsory education; accelerated expansion of early childhood development (ECD); and creating 4,000 Village Education Committees, each having women members. The committees are to have planning input into their local schools.

Cultivating Gender Sensitivity

Mounting evidence shows that gender-aware policy and planning fail to achieve maximum impact where teachers, front-line administrators and supervisors are unaware, uncommitted or resistant. Becoming equally clear is that education front-liners insist on the genuine support of all senior tiers in the ministry and the political arena before they actively pursue a gender agenda. The need for system-wide gender training is growing by the day.

An enabling education system is essential for teachers to learn, and use, the skills needed to validate girls' life experience and nurture girls' participation. These skills are required to empower girls and promote societal change toward gender equity.

Sensitisation is proving critical in establishing solid gender-disaggregated baselines and recurrent data systems. Gender training is integral to Lao PDR's project to improve the collection and processing of gender disaggregated data and Nepal's efforts to maximise gender-specific census data. Educators report that Thailand's gender-blind education system frustrates collection of gender-specific data. India's experience confirms that when strategies for mobilisation and community involvement are organised in a gender-neutral fashion, administrators who lack gender sensitisation reinforce gender bias. This can manifest itself in many ways, one being the invisibility of women in school mapping processes.

NGOs are often the vanguard in gender-inclusive programming. In many instances issues that women and girls identified during gender sensitisation processes spurred more relevance in literacy and NFE programmes. This is the route that led to the integrated content that characterises many of the most successful literacy programmes in the region (nutrition, health, agriculture, forestry, group formation). NGOs in Thailand and Nepal also find that without gender sensitisation training of both men and women, women's literacy and skills training can alienate men, then backfire.

Entry by government into gender sensitisation is limited and late. One of the most prudent entry strategies has been partnership with NGOs that have expertise and flexibility in incorporating gender sensitisation into programming. Two projects offering significant learnings are the Lok Jumbish project and Production Credit for Rural Women (PCRW). Lok Jumbish weaves gender sensitisation into its philosophy and structure. It encourages Rajasthan communities to take control of local education. PCRW, Nepal's largest credit and skill-linked literacy programme for women, has explored several techniques for integrating gender sensitisation.

Nepal is launching many components of a systematic gender training approach. Its efforts warrant watching, especially the mechanisms to ensure consistency, collaboration and reinforcement between the piece-meal initiatives. The Ministry of Women & Social Welfare has trained the three senior government tiers. UNDP is funding training in lower levels of government and of Village Development Committees. The Social Welfare Council has been set up to work with NGOs to create gender awareness within civil society. MoE's Women's Education Unit is giving gender orientation to women teachers.

These women-only orientations provided a rare opportunity to discuss gender issues related to both content and pedagogy. They exposed the isolation and marginalizing of women teachers in male-dominated and male-responsive systems: another valid call for gender sensitisation. However, resources are limited and only a minority of women teachers have been touched.

The Indonesian government recently launched a National Movement on the Harmonious Partnership between Men and Women in Development. Development planners and government decision-makers have been identified for gender training.

India and Nepal have comprehensively redesigned primary curricula this decade. Lao PDR is in the midst of doing so. Education ministries are discovering that if they had a 'gender-aware culture' it would be easier to produce better teacher-learner materials. Nepal is currently reviewing its primary textbooks for gender balance and for potential to generate gender awareness. These books were just developed in 1992-97 by curricula specialists given gender training. The commitment to fine-tune the texts so soon is impressive.

Making Education Compulsory

Feminists and educators have widely advocated compulsory education as a strategy for increasing girls' enrolment. Compulsory primary education is government policy in Lao PDR, Indonesia, India and Thailand. It is being introduced, in stages, in Nepal.

In Thailand and Indonesia, compulsory education made an undisputed contribution to high primary enrolments. What is evident in both Lao PDR and Nepal is that compulsory education cannot be successfully introduced unless the needs of the poorest are met. Cash, in-kind and opportunity costs, timing, location and other criteria must respond to local needs. In the early years when governments are gearing up to deliver on their commitment, girls are the most vulnerable. Implementing compulsory education can stress budgets and cause painful compromises.

The case study countries clearly show that the introduction of compulsory education can bring societal disruption that needs careful assessment and mediation. It challenged social norms when used as a strategy to reduce early marriages in Indonesia. It is conflicting with the recruitment of young monks in Thailand. In Nepal, government relations with other stakeholders could become an issue. NGOs have been asked to relocate their non-formal education programmes out of the first provinces where compulsory education was introduced, because the government deems itself able to attract all children to its school and out-of-school programmes.

Introducing Preschooling

The positive impact of preschooling on primary achievement is no longer debated. Neither is the positive impact on girls' enrolment. Despite this, the five country case studies show a wide range in commitment to preschooling. Thailand has nearly doubled its pre-school enrolment this decade, with enrolment topping 80%[37]. In contrast, Lao PDR has identified pre school development as a post-2000 objective. Nepal is launching its first national pre-school programme. Its goal is to attract communities into share-costing 10,000 early childhood development centres by year 2002.

The origin of Nepal's ECD initiative is insightful: UNICEF, INGOs and NGOs documented that the cost of Grade 1 wastage was more than US$18-million each year. This, in conjunction with evidence that preschooling greatly aids primary achievement, was pivotal in gaining government funding.

Recruiting and Training of Women Teachers

Women teachers are vital as girls' role models and mentors. This has been recognised in Indonesia where nearly half of primary teachers are women and girls' primary enrolment has reached 95%[38].

Evidence of the link between female teachers and girls' enrolment is becoming especially clear in Nepal where only one in five teachers is a woman. Seventeen of the 25 districts with the lowest number of female teachers also have the lowest number of girls enrolled in primary school. Thirteen of the same districts have the highest levels of primary dropout[39]. Nepal's success in recruiting 4,150 female teachers in the last five years shows that if there is the will to hire women, obstacles can be overcome.

Yet, the problem of recruiting and maintaining teachers, especially women teachers, in remote and ethnic minority villages is chronic in Lao PDR, Nepal and India. Different approaches to accrediting, training and supporting women teachers are needed. Para teachers, teachers' aids, innovative distance education, compressed and in-situ training programmes are showing their worth as pilots. Potential for mainstreaming deserves consideration.

The Shiksha Karmi Project in Rajasthan trains para teachers to operate dysfunctional primary day schools and evening classes for working girls and women. It also brings primary schooling closer to girls by opening classes in courtyards or homes. Women teachers are preferred. The project's strength is equated with the intensive ongoing resourcing and training by education NGOs. Regrettably, the support for this and other innovative projects is floundering, because education officials in government and the teachers unions, predominantly urban men, do not recognise the validity of lowering qualifications for remote area women teachers.

Residential teacher training is proving a consistently inappropriate model for women. Alternatives to multi-month facility-based training are vital to women whose sibling, domestic and security needs conflict with extended absence from their home communities. Lao PDR is reducing the number of teacher training colleges. ADB funding of a residential network of teachers' colleges in Nepal is being discontinued. The emerging trend to more cluster-based and local in-service training, education broadcasting, and teacher training through distance education models is viewed as positive for women's participation.

Nepal's MoE plans to expand its radio-centred in-service pilot project to train 10,000 teachers in 1999. The recent training of all teachers in Nepal's new primary curriculum, the launch of a recurrent teacher training programme, and expansion of distance education are anticipated to fill much of the gender gap in training that has disadvantaged women teachers.

Relating to Girls

There is growing recognition that elements of the primary and basic education curricula need to be gender-aware and locally-determined. It is a recognition, and often a policy, that remains inert. Lao PDR's experience is indicative. It has a 20% flexibility clause that permits variation in curriculum and teaching methods to accommodate urban, rural and ethnic differences. To date, this is only a paper reality. Some progress is hopefully en route in the Basic Education (Girls') Project. Components include supplementary materials and adapted curricula.

It is becoming apparent that participatory methodology and localised curricula are the springboards for girls' and women's empowerment. They create

the entry points to validate girls' life experience, dreams and world view. Becoming equally obvious, is that teachers will not initiate the use of participatory methods and local content. Departing from a structured rote-based environment and creating a dynamic participatory one involves high personal and professional risk. The change must be nurtured with training, recognition, and the permission and supportive mentoring of supervisors.

Formal education has much to learn from non-formal education. Literacy experience in these countries documents the success of problem-solving and participatory approaches, as well as the use of vernacular expressions, legends and stories, local talent and issues. These strengths need to be integrated more widely into mainstream literacy, primary school and post-literacy approaches. Ground-breaking successes by non-government and private sectors should be incorporated.

Also key to increasing relevance for girls is increasing locally-useful vocational and life skills. Examples abound of women being taught skills that are useless or surplus to their micro economy.

Outstanding Issues

Valuing of Girls Education and their Education Environment

There is a gap in the value placed on girls' and boys' education. It manifests itself differently across the five study countries. In Thailand, where there is widespread denial of the gap, two vital issues have little visibility. Scant attention is paid to making girls' education relevant. Women's and girls' issues are dismissed as stemming from either the deviant and deprived (prostitution etc.) or the feminist elite. NFE, the vehicle for most Thai female-specific education initiatives, exists in a cloud of low status and low pay. Gender dialogue is needed.

The impact of royalty on the value of girls' education has had a very different impact in Thailand than in Indonesia. In Thailand, the queen's support helped establish high status and worth for girls' education. In the former sultanate of Yogyakarta, Queen Serat Wulangreh's written missives called for all women to be loyal and obedient to their husbands. The deeply-rooted subordination has survived through the generations and continues to undermine girls' sense of worth and entitlement to education. As a result, there are increasing signals that today's economic recession may trigger a heavier withdrawal of girls, than boys, from schools.

In Nepal, schooling is marketed as a means to get away from the hard agricultural life, to get urban government jobs, to secure status and privilege. For most girls, these are false promises. More than 90% of all economically active women in Nepal are engaged in agriculture. Only 4% work in the formal sector[40]. The reality is that most girls will spend their lives within their rural micro economy. Education will not be relevant if it does not equip them to thrive within their communities. The deep-rooted socio-cultural devaluation of girls' education in Nepal is well documented. Devaluing their life experience and contribution as agricultural producers doubly marginalizes girls. Awareness raising of both the value of girls' education and the value of being farmers are linked needs in empowering rural girls in Nepal.

Disturbingly few girls, or boys, have become literate through NFE or continuing education in India, where NFE is widely viewed as second-best and has inconstant support from education officials. Until NFE is respected, the barriers to mainstreaming successful NFE micro projects that empower girls and women will not be removed.

In India, the value of educating girls is widely recognised. However, problems of access, quality, content[41] and the devaluing of non-formal education reduce enrolment.

Managing the Entry of Private Schooling

Where private sector entry is not significant in these countries, it is being courted. About 18%[42] of primary children in Indonesia are enrolled in private schools. Private schools accommodate 12% of primary children in Thailand and about 8% in Nepal[43]. Thailand regulates the private sector through the Private Education Commission while Nepal merely registers the schools, requests compliance with the state curriculum and participation in state-run exams at set junctures. Lao PDR is taking a more prudent approach. The ADB-funded Private Education Project aims to formalise an operational system for the private sector.

In 1991, Nepal's MoE correctly predicted the evolution of a five-tier basic education system comprising: one tier for the affluent who send their children to foreign schools; Nepal private schools for the less affluent; public schools for the middle class; out-of-school education for the poor; and no education for the poorest[44].

The gender implications were not foreseen. Central Bureau of Statistics 1997 data show private primary schooling is 13 times more expensive than public schooling. An emerging trend, due to deeply entrenched male preference, is for families with fixed education budgets to send their sons to private schools. Only if they can afford it, will their daughters accompany them. Otherwise, girls will be relegated to the widely perceived 'second class' government school, less costly out-of-school options or denied an education. Most of the highly-respected private schools now have grade one entry exams, obliging parents to pay for private preschooling. In addition, some schools exert strong pressure on parents to pay for private tutoring. As these collective costs go up, there are indications that the gender gap will widen.

The Indonesian government estimates about 20,000 private institutions or organisations offer continuing education courses. Many have positively integrated apprenticeship and income-generation components. On the negative side, there is little evidence of either government or private sector leadership to prevent gender ghettos. The majority of women still train in cooking, textile and clothing, beautician and secretarial courses. There is little entry into non-traditional fields.

Party Politics Compromise Education

The growing politicisation of education impedes progress towards gender equity. India and Nepal offer clear examples. India's middle-class male teachers are considered the backbone of political parties. Mobilisation during elections and subsequent political trouble-shooting are done by teachers. Political parties have effectively prevented key education policy from being implemented[45].

As in India, Nepal politics is dominated by men. The Nepal case study provides insight into how damaging the politicisation of education can be. Male teachers are hired in disproportionate numbers[46]. This results from political party influence on local teacher-hiring committees to recruit male teachers who can be groomed as future candidates. Then, parties habitually pull these teachers from class to do party business. In addition, politicisation impedes meaningful community involvement in local school committees and leads to frequent changeover in district education officers. This disrupts programming and results in ambivalent MoE leadership in the districts. Politicisation of the district committees that award literacy and NFE contracts to NGOs has resulted in some non-allied or non-partisan education NGOs being excluded. As a result, they circumvent government and apply for direct international programme funds.

The influence of political parties on the teachers' associations in both India and Nepal also marginalizes women teachers. In India, this has generated strong resistance to positive change for girls' education: flexible times, context-specific adaptation to curricula, innovative teaching methods.

The Indonesian government has integrated the Pancasila, the governing party's ideology and vision for Indonesia, into all forms of government-linked education, including the mandatory lectures required for registered prostitutes[47]. This use of education for political control and to reinforce the gender divide - women's role in the domestic domain and men's role in the public domain – puts effective limitations on government and non-government initiatives for women's empowerment. The UNESCO-UNICEF project with the Ministry of Education and Culture involves training of trainers in household management. It is one example of donors trying to live within these political confines while they strive to respond to women's strategic needs.

The Governor of Yogyakarta's decree that school-age children must stay home between 19:00 and 21:00 hours, each day, warrants mention. The aim is enforced home study. Started three years ago, the initiative reflects the ease with which politicians and power-brokers can impact education in Indonesia.

The Slow Pace of Decentralisation

Decentralisation is a common strategy in national education agendas but implementation faces layers of resistance. Phase II of Nepal's Basic & Primary Education Project plans to facilitate the creation of

4,000 village education committees in 1999-2003. The fact that the community engagement component was the only significant element of BPEP Phase I not to get off the ground suggests this will be a major challenge.

Experience indicates that communities will not be actively involved in village school committees until they are actively encouraged to do so by local ministry of education staff and community leaders. This, in turn, is contingent on front-line education ministry staff understanding, and being involved in, the policy and planning process. Front-line staff also need the skills to facilitate community engagement and entry into education planning. Neither pre condition exists yet in the case study countries.

What is clear is that the identical top-through-bottom commitment is needed in decentralisation as is needed in increasing the relevance of girls' and women's education. Maximum effectiveness will come from making all decentralisation efforts gender-inclusive and driven by gender equity.

The government offices in charge of non-formal education in these countries consistently identify women and girls as their primary targets. All are partnering with community groups. Their lessons on community engagement should be explored and valued in decentralising formal education. 'Bottom-up' community planning by projects like India' s Lok Jumbish has exposed the invisibility of girls and forced communities to think about the status of the girl child.

Inadequate Funding

These countries fall far short of the 6% GNP target for education investment recommended by the International Commission in Education for the Twenty-First Century. The 1995 figures range from a low of 2.4 in Lao PDR to a 4.2 high in Thailand. Nepal was 2.9, India 3.5 and Indonesia's comparative figure is not available[48]. It appears equally difficult in most of these countries to extrapolate the education funding which targets girls and women. In 1996-1997, only 0.03% of Indonesia's Ministry of Education & Culture budget of R 6-billion was directly identified for girls' and women's education.

The World Bank and the ADB, the UN community (primarily UNDP, UNESCO and UNICEF), key INGOs in education including Save the Children, World Education, Care and Redd Barna plus a network of education-focused bilateral funders have a strong presence in education funding, and thereby, the direction of education in these countries. Donor-driven agendas, periodically including gender agendas, are responsible for a schizophrenic mix of advancing and stalemating progress toward gender equity.

Multiple lessons on donor management can be learned from Nepal's Basic & Primary Education Project (BPEP). Although its Phase I record in school-building, curricula development and training is impressive, the project's donor driven conception was flawed. BPEP Phase I served 40 districts while the mainline Ministry served the remaining 35. Resourcing levels differed, creating a feeling of 'have' and 'have not'. Inefficiencies and duplication, rivalry and disharmony emerged as the internationally-funded BPEP became the primary and basic education powerhouse. Stakeholders widely regarded MoE as secondary and crippled. The current MoE restructuring is designed, among other objectives, to re-assert the ministry as paramount in BPEP Phase II. The factors that contributed to the marginalizing, then resurgence, of the ministry are worthy of study by other Asian nations.

So is the funding model of Phase II. All donor funds will be pooled and donors given proportionate ownership of the full programme to reduce donor friction/competition over specific programme elements. Although the genesis was more efficient administration, there is potential to advance gender mainstreaming and to foster cooperative involvement by more funders in girls' and women's education.

RECOMMENDATIONS

- **Strengthen girls' and women's education as a tool of empowerment and of poverty alleviation.** Both dimensions warrant full commitment and resourcing. It is especially critical not to lose this vision during budget-cutting periods, introduction of compulsory education, privatising basic education delivery, and at junctures where there could be a shift in the community-government sharing of education costs. At these points, comprehensive documentation of the gender impact, and the cost to parents and communities, should precede policy formulation.
- **Nurture horizontal communication between ministries** to create new mechanisms, or maximise the potential of existing mechanisms, to foster a cohesive gender-responsive approach by government to education. Close linkage between the women's and education ministries is especially strategic.
- **Ensure there is a permanent pool of gender-aware expertise**, concurrent program budget for girls' and women's education, and mentors to assist government managers in creating gender-responsive planning, implementing and monitoring processes.
- **Sensitise and motivate MoE staff at all levels**, including teachers, to maximise access to, and quality of, education for girls and women. Form strategic linkages with other ministries so all civil servants can be sensitised.
- **Ensure a synergistic partnership between formal and non-formal education** that features: responsive internal and external communications; information feedback loops with all delivery agents (public, private and civil society); multiple cross-over and entry points for students; merit-linked recognition for advancing girls' and women's education.
- **Recruit more women teachers and make teacher training more appropriate** for women. This involves replacing multi-month residential training with distance education and local, alternative models. Successful NGO experience and community input can be valuable. Consideration should be given to developing a second-tier teaching credential that enables more women to teach in teacher-short rural and ethnic minority areas.
- **Adopt participatory methods** in formal and non-formal education. Develop a holistic package for assisting teachers to gain the confident competence to sustain participatory teaching: high-quality training, supervised practice teaching, mentoring, refresher training, and achievement-based recognition.
- **Develop mechanisms to harness the successful learning from micro projects** in girls' and women's education.
- **Promote public dialogue on the value of girls' education**. Awareness programmes will be most effective if they are multi-ministry, multi-stakeholder initiatives, have a strong IEC approach using modern and traditional media, and are monitored and evaluated for impact. Strategically incorporate messages that will help overcome attitudinal barriers to girls' education (i.e. Nepal – promote the value of being a woman farmer; India – highlight the integrity of non-formal education; Lao PDR – respond to specific ethnic concerns).

- **Initiate systematic monitoring and evaluation of girls' and women's learning outcomes**. Monitoring and evaluation systems need to be considerably deepened to expose the needs, successes and failures of girls and women's education.
- **Provide the training and support needed to women in gender-test roles** (i.e. Village Education Committees) so they have the tools to fully participate as change agents.

INTERNATIONAL RECOMMENDATIONS

- **Develop and apply a gender lens for international funding and interventions** in education in Asia. Participants: Asian governments; key funders of basic education in Asia (IFI, UN, bilateral, INGO); private sector.
- **Launch an Asian and Pacific regional educators' Decentralisation Round Table** for information-sharing that will advance community input into gender-aware school planning and class activity.
- **Facilitate horizontal sharing** between Asian and Pacific nations on models of partnering, information-sharing, and regulating the private education sector to achieve gender-responsive education.

Footnotes:

1 UNESCO PROP commissioned the case studies in August-September 1998. Authors: India (Vimala Ramachandran); Lao PDR (Heather Peters), Thailand (Darunee Tantiwiramanond); Indonesia (Case Study Team under the leadership of Dr. W.P. Napitupulu) and Nepal (Linda Pennells).

2 UNICEF documents Nepal studies showing girls in some age groups have twice the average daily workload as boys. UNICEF/National Planning Commission, Government of Nepal (1996) ***Children and Women of Nepal – A Situational Analysis***, Kathmandu.

3 Ministry of Education planning is based on current literacy rates of approximately 30% for women and 66% for men, although the UNESCO (1998) ***World Education Report*** refers to Nepal 1995 adult literacy rates of 14.0% for women and 40.9% for men. ***Lao PDR Census 1995*** shows the Lao PDR literacy rate as: women 35% -men 65% (age 14+)

4 ***Census of India 1991*** – Literacy rate (7 years+) male: 63.86% female: 39.42%. ***Human Development Index – National Council for Educational Resource and Training***, Delhi (1994 data) Literacy rate (7 years+) (rural only) male: 65.6% female: 40.1%.

5 ***Government of India/National Council for Educational Resource and Training*** Delhi, 1995.

6 ***Census of India 1991***.

7 Source: ***Ministry of Human Resource Development***, Government of India 1992/93 dropout rates: boys 46.75% – girls 49.69%; Source: ***Ministry of Human Resource Development – Government of India, Annual Report*** (1996/97) 1995/96 dropout rates: boys 37.92% – girls 41.31%.

8 UNICEF (1996) ***Children and their Families in the Lao People's Republic: A Situational Analysis***, Vientiane.

9 ***Ibid***: Urban statistics for children who never go to school: boys 9% – girls 18.9%. Rural: boys 31.9% - girls 53.1%.

10 Source of data on ethnic minorities: ADB (1997) ***Project Document - Basic Education (Girls') Project*** (Eduplus 1997 including table 32:b) Vientiane.

11 Urban statistics for children who never go to school: boys 9% – girls 18.9%. Rural: boys 31.9% - girls 53.1%. UNICEF (1996) ***Children and their Families in the Lao People's Republic: A Situational Analysis***, Vientiane.

12 The 1996 estimate of out-of-school primary-age children in Nepal is 928,000. All Nepal education figures noted are from: MoE (1996) ***Education Statistics of Nepal 1996***, Kathmandu, and MoE/UNICEF (1998) ***Girls Education In Nepal – Country Report***, Kathmandu.

13 ***Government of Indonesia/Central Bureau of Statistics***, Census 1980, 1990 and 1996, Jakarta.

14 Source of enrolment, completion and drop-out rates: Appendix to the ***Presidential State Address*** to the People's Representative Council-1982, 1985 & 1989; and Primary School Statistics, ***Department of Education & Culture*** 1989/1990, 1993/1994.

15 ***Central Bureau of Statistics*** (1996 data) Total population over 10 years who have never attended school was 430,690: boys-114,992, girls-315,698. Total drop-outs over 10 years: boys – 774,264, girls-666,292.

16 Office of National Primary Education Commission (ONPEC) (1997) ***Education Information 1997***, Bangkok.

Footnotes (cont'd):

17 UNICEF (1996) ***Children and their Families in the Lao People's Republic: A Situational Analysis***, Vientiane, p 15.

18 UNESCO (1998) ***World Education Report*** Paris, p. 126.

19 ***Interview with Chuman Singh Basnyat***, Joint Secretary - Planning Division, MoE, Kathmandu. August 20, 1998. (Researcher: Linda Pennells)

20 UNESCO PROAP (1997) ***Impact of Non-Formal Adult Education In the Asia-Pacific Region*** Bangkok, p. 24.

21 National Sample Survey Organisation (Department of Statistics) - Government of India (1997) – ***Fifth Quinquennial Survey***, July 1993-June 1994, Delhi.

22 Data: 1997 project document, Joint UN System Support for Community-Based Primary Education, Delhi.

23 Primary School Statistics 1993/94, Education & Cultural Research & Development Agency, ***Department of Education and Culture*** (1994) Jakarta.

24 Target provinces: Aceh, Riau, Jambi, Bengkulu, Lampung, West Nusa Tenggara, East Nusa Tenggara, East Timor, West Kalimantan, Central Kalimantan, South Kalimantan, East Kalimantan, North Sulawesi, Central Sulawesi, South East Sulawesi, Maluku and Irian Jaya.

25 National Policy on Education - approved 1986 and revised 1992.

26 Goudineau, Yves (1997) ***Basic Needs for Resettled Communities in Lao PDR*** UNDP/UNESCO, Vientiane.

27 Research Centre for Educational Innovation and Development (CERID) (1997) ***Gender and Secondary Education***, Kathmandu, p 20.

28 ***Interview: Chij Shrestha***, Director, World Education. (NGO Representative – National Non-Formal Education Council), Kathmandu, Aug. 28/98. (Researcher: Linda Pennells)

29 ***Interview: Dharai Dhar Khatiwada***, Joint Secretary, Ministry of Women & Social Welfare, Kathmandu, Aug. 24/98. (Researcher: Linda Pennells)

30 Research Centre for Educational Innovation and Development (CERID) / National Non-Formal Education Council (1997) ***Impact Study of Adult Education in Nepal***, Kathmandu.

31 ***National Sample Survey*** – Fiftieth Round, Government of India 1993/94, table 19.

32 The 1966 Education Commission report notes a significant number of administrators, opinion leaders and commentators argued that provision of a second-best alternative in the form of non-formal education was morally indefensible. It took until 1986 before official sanction (policy) allowed state-funded non-formal education in backward regions of India.

33 Examples include Mahila Shikshan Vihar and Mahila Shikshan Kendra.

34 Nepal's Cheli-beti Programme for out-of-school girls (1981-91) was launched in poor remote mountain communities incorporating the participating girls' needs, songs, and vocabulary. It was widely believed to have triggered girls' self-discovery of how to improve their village life.

35 Sulaiman, F. and Leniston, M. (1998) ***Impact Study of Eastern Island Small Holder Farming System and Agricultural Development Project on Women*** Directorate-General for Livestock Services, Ministry of Agriculture (in process).

Footnotes (cont'd):

36 Research Centre for Educational Innovation and Development CERID/UNESCO-PROAP (1998) ***Evaluation and Review of Incentive Schemes to Encourage Participation of Girls and Women in Basic Education*** (First Phase) Tribhuvan University, Kathmandu.

37 81.8% in 1997. Source: ***Office of National Education Commission***.

38 UNESCO (1998) ***World Education Report*** Paris. The 1995 primary net enrolment ratio for girls was 95% (p. 134) and 44% of primary teachers in 1995 were women (p. 142).

39 International Centre for Integrated Mountain Development (ICIMOD) (1997) ***Districts of Nepal – Indicators of Development*** Kathmandu.

40 ***Central Bureau of Statistics***, Government of Nepal. Data: 1995.

41 ***Interview: Dr. Sharad Jain***, Sandham, Jaipur. Aug. 1998 (Researcher: Vimala Ramachandran)

42 UNESCO (1988) ***World Education Report*** Paris, p. 158. In 1995, 18% of primary students in Indonesia attended private schools.

43 Indonesia and Thai figures are 1995 data from the UNESCO (1998) ***World Education Report*** Paris. The Nepal figure is from the MoE (1998) ***Educational Statistics of Nepal*** 1996, Kathmandu.

44 Nepal South Asia Centre/UNDP (1998) ***Nepal Human Development Report 1998*** Kathmandu, p. 87.

45 Ramashandran, Vimala ***National Policies and Implementation Mechanisms for Girls' and Women's Education in India***, p 12.

46 A 1998 World Bank-funded survey of village development committees showed VDCs provided money to hire teachers overwhelmingly hired men. ***Interview: Chhaya Jha***, Gender and Development Consultant, Human Resource Development Centre (HURDEC), Kathmandu, Aug. 21/98. (Researcher: Linda Pennells)

47 ***Bridging the Gap***, a slide show produced by NGO Kalyanamitra in 1991.

48 UNESCO (1998) ***World Education Report*** Paris.

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